## Water Resources Management

## Dealing with uncertainty in decision-making for drinking water supply systems exposed to extreme events

--Manuscript Draft--





#### **Abstract**

 The availability and the quality of drinking water are key requirements for the well-being and the safety of a community, both in ordinary conditions and in case of disasters. Providing safe drinking water in emergency contributes to limit the intensity and the duration of crises, and is thus one of the main concerns for decision-makers, who operate under significant uncertainty. The present work proposes a Decision Support System for the emergency management of drinking water supply systems, integrating: i) a vulnerability assessment model based on Bayesian Belief Networks with the related uncertainty assessment model; ii) a model for impact, and related uncertainty assessment, based on Bayesian Belief Networks. The results of these models are jointly analyzed, providing decision-makers with a ranking of the priority of intervention. A GIS interface (*G-Net*) is developed to manage both input spatial information and results. The methodology is implemented in L'Aquila case study, discussing the potentialities associated to the use of the tool dealing with information and data uncertainty.

**Keywords**: Emergency management; Drinking water supply systems; Bayesian Belief Networks; Uncertainty Analysis; Decision Support System

#### **1. Introduction**

 Modern societies highly rely on infrastructures, which provide critical services and guarantee the quality of life for citizens (Zhao et al. 2016). The increase in both frequency and intensity of extreme events contributes to create additional challenges to the infrastructure providers (Eidsvig et al. 2017). Particularly, water supply infrastructures are essential for health, sanitary and economic reasons and, consequently, there is high pressure on water organizations to provide customers with a continual and efficient water supply (Mala-Jetmarova et al. 2017).

Several approaches are available for protecting water supply infrastructures from a wide variety of stresses, either supporting system performances assessment in case of extreme events (EPA 2015) or driving the selection of suitable actions for vulnerabilities mitigation (Fragiadakis et al. 2013). Methods typically vary with the type of system, the aim of the analysis, and the available information. A broad classification is into qualitative, semi-quantitative and quantitative approaches (Pagano et al. 2014a; Eidsvig et al. 2017). Quantitative tools require detailed data and a high computational burden, but provide reliable numerical outcomes for decision-makers (Fragiadakis et al 2013, Diao et al. 2016). Qualitative approaches support ranking risk levels, screening and identifying critical scenarios (Eidsvig et al. 2017), based on the use of classes (e.g. 'high', 'medium', 'low'). Semi-quantitative techniques (e.g. probabilistic methods such as Bayesian Belief Networks) guarantee a compromise between such classes.

 One of the most challenging tasks in these methods is uncertainty management. Uncertainty represents the lack of exact knowledge, which is inherently associated to water supply systems planning, design and operation (Tanyimboh 2017). Specifically, the uncertainties related to emergency onset and evolution (Perng and Buscher 2015) as well as the difficulty in collecting reliable data and the ambiguity in the understanding of specific phenomena should be properly considered. These issues deeply affect the capability to identify optimal decisions for emergency management (Pagano et al. 2014b, Gaudard and Romerio 2015). Enhancing the understanding of  uncertainties could support developing a representative picture of the current knowledge and its potential deficiencies (Uusitalo et al. 2015, van der Keur et al. 2016).

Bayesian Belief Networks (BBNs) have shown several useful features to support decision-making under uncertainty for water supply systems (Molina et al. 2011). BBNs allow the integration of various types of information combining qualitative and quantitative aspects (Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016, Phan et al. 2016). They support reasoning from uncertain evidence to uncertain conclusion (John et al. 2016), treating both data and model uncertainty (Marcot 2012, Uusitalo et al. 2015, Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016).

Within this framework, the present work describes a Decision Support System (DSS) for the emergency management of drinking water supply infrastructures. The DSS is based on the integration of: i) a probabilistic vulnerability assessment model, based on BBNs, to identify the most critical elements of the infrastructural system; ii) the associated uncertainty estimate; iii) a BBN-based model for impact assessment; iv) the associated uncertainty estimate. The most relevant innovation of the present work is twofold. Firstly, the definition of a methodology to perform a joint vulnerability and impact assessment of infrastructural failure, with an explicit uncertainty analysis. This is a crucial requisite in the definition of a set of decision-makers' preferences to support defining a priority of actions in emergency. Secondly, overcoming one of the main limits of BBNs, which are not inherently characterized by a spatial nature, a GIS interface (*G-Net*) was built to support the management of input spatial information and results visualization. The DSS was developed with the cooperation of the Italian Department of Civil Protection (DPC), tested with several Italian water utilities (Acquedotto Pugliese S.p.A., Gran Sasso Acqua S.p.A. and AIMAG S.p.A.), and implemented in a relevant case study: L'Aquila (Italy) earthquake in 2009.

The paper is structured as follows. After the present introduction, Section 2 provides an overview of BBNs features and applications. Section 3 describes the architecture of the developed tool. Section 4  discusses the relevance of L'Aquila case study, while section 5 includes a discussion on the main results related to the implementation of *G-Net*, analyzing its potential and limitations.

#### **2. Methodological background: Bayesian Belief Networks**

 BBNs combine graph theory and probability theory, consisting of directed acyclic graphs and associated joint probability distribution (Pearl 1988). The graph nodes represent variables, whereas the edges represent conditional dependencies. The strength of the dependency is represented by conditional probabilities: each variable  $X_i$  is associated to a probability function  $P(X_i|p_{ai})$  that takes as input  $p_{ai}$ , i.e. a set of predecessors of  $X_i$  which make  $X_i$  independent on all other predecessors. Variables that are judged as direct causes of  $X_i$  satisfy this property, and are the parent variables of the node. BBNs thus allow the probabilistic representation of interactions between variables (Pearl 1988, Phan et al. 2016). The importance of BBNs is mainly related to the ability to coordinate bidirectional inferences, supporting the representation and analysis of uncertain knowledge as well as different modes of reasoning (Pearl 1988).

BBNs have become an increasingly popular modelling technique to deal with complexity and uncertainty and several studies focused on the potentialities of BBNs to support decision-making in several emergency conditions (e.g. Sobradelo et al. 2015, Wu et al. 2017). Referring specifically to water supply infrastructures exposed to external stresses, BBNs were mainly used to build models for pipe breaks using learning from past breaks, integrating multiple kinds of data and modeling explicitly the dependencies, using probabilities updates and a representation of uncertainty (Francis et al. 2014, Kabir et al. 2015, Kabir et al. 2016).

 A wide scientific literature underlined that BBNs are able to support: the integration of various types of information (e.g. analytical models, expert knowledge, literature and historical data) (Gonzalez- Redin et al. 2016, Phan et al. 2016), the possibility of reasoning from uncertain evidence to uncertain conclusions (John et al. 2016), the explicit treatment of uncertainties (Uusitalo 2007, Uusitalo et al.  2015, Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016). Furthermore, BBNs are also flexible enough to support a revision of probabilities in the light of additional information or observations availability.

BBNs have also some limitations. Firstly, nodes are often discretized with only a few states and in qualitative terms (e.g. 'high' or 'low'), providing a coarse representation (Uusitalo, 2007). Secondly, the BBNs structure is linear and static, and does not directly account for the analysis of feedback loops and dynamic issues (Uusitalo, 2007). Furthermore, BBNs do not natively provide a spatial representation of variables.

 Specifically referring to the last issue, Johnson et al. (2011) identified four ways to integrate GIS and BBNs: i) GIS input to BBN, when GIS layers are used as input nodes; ii) GIS input to, and output from BBN, in case GIS is also used to visualize the output of a BBN; iii) BBN and GIS complex interactions; iv) BBN and GIS within a larger framework, where BBNs model one factor and GIS models other factors. Integrated methodologies based on BBNs and GIS were recently proposed (e.g. Landuyt et al. 2015, Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016, Molina et al. 2016, Liu et al. 2016), showing remarkable potentialities. Uncertainty maps can be developed as well, as discussed by Landuyt et al.  $(2015).$ 

#### **3. Model description**

The present work describes a DDS developed for decision-makers involved in the management of drinking water supply infrastructures under emergency conditions.

The DSS is based on the integration of:

A probabilistic vulnerability assessment model, based on BBN, for the infrastructural system. The model is integrated in a GIS tool (*G-Net*) in order to facilitate data input and to provide a geographical visualization of results (Section 3.1).

 An uncertainty analysis related to the results of the vulnerability assessment model, used to analyze the impacts of the available knowledge (and existing gaps) on the results (Section 3.2).

 A BBN-based probabilistic model for impact assessment, useful to quantify the magnitude of the impacts of an event (Section 3.3).

An uncertainty analysis related to the results of the impacts assessment model (Section 3.3).

In the end, decision-making is supported through the definition of a ranking order among the elements of the network, based on the integration of information on infrastructural vulnerability, impacts and related uncertainties.

#### **3.1** *G-Net* **tool for the spatial vulnerability assessment**

 The first element of the DSS is a vulnerability assessment tool for drinking water supply infrastructures based on BBNs, whose conceptual structure is described in Pagano et al. (2014a). The tool is composed of a set of BBNs quantifying the vulnerability levels of drinking water supply systems from source to tap, with respect to physical (earthquakes, landslides) or CBR hazards (water contamination).

 The following Fig. 1 shows the BBN used to analyze the physical vulnerability of water mains. It may be used either to assess the global vulnerability level, or the vulnerability associated to specific mechanisms (i.e. breaking, corrosion, joint extraction and security level). The variables in grey represent the 'parent' variables (input), whereas those in yellow are the 'child' variables (output).

Three main classes of data are included in the model: infrastructural data (e.g. diameter, material, thickness, etc.); environmental data (e.g. seismicity, soil mechanical characteristics, etc.); operative data (e.g. hydraulic variability, maintenance performed/scheduled, etc.). The outcome is, for each element of the network under investigation, a set of probability values associated to the states of specific output variables. Further details on model building are included in the Supplementary Material.

#### 1 FIG 1

Fig. 1 BBN for the physical vulnerability assessment of water mains

It is worth mentioning that each pipe is analyzed independently, thus neglecting the role of structural or functional interconnections, dependencies and cascading effects (e.g. a vulnerable element might have impacts on the whole infrastructure downstream). This allows easily identifying the most vulnerable elements of the whole network (further details in Pagano et al. 2014a).

Based on the feedbacks obtained by the potential end-users, i.e. DPC and water utilities, a GIS interface was built, in order to facilitate spatial data processing and results representation. The toolbox *G-Net* consists of an expanded development of a GIS application supporting the vulnerability assessment tool. It is specifically designed to support the integration with Netica<sup>TM</sup> software by means of an automated procedure. The tool is composed of customized interfaces working in ArcGIS® software (by Esri) environment with wizards configured as interface between Netica<sup>TM</sup> and ArcGIS<sup>®</sup>.

The tool has been designed using open-source Python scripting language, fully supported by ArcGIS® and able to extend the basic functionality of GIS and to automate the workflow (Tateosian 2015). A loosely-coupled integration strategy between ArcGIS<sup>®</sup> and Netica<sup>TM</sup> was used. This means that the latter is not completely encapsulated within a GIS environment, but takes advantage of the database, the visualization and the analysis capabilities of a GIS (Karimi and Houston 1996, Johnson et al. 2011)

 *G-Net* was developed both for the collection, analysis and attribution of spatial input data and for the visualization and mapping of the outcomes of the vulnerability assessment. Referring to the different classes of BBN-GIS interactions introduced above (Johnson et al. 2011), *G-Net* refers to the second category, which is 'GIS input to, and output from BBN'.

A schematic overview of the procedure carried out by the tool is shown in the Fig. 2.

FIG 2

 Figure 2. *G-Net* procedure for vulnerability assessment and mapping: (a) selection of the analysis to perform; (b) data association to the input variables; (c) input variables export procedure; (d) output vulnerability map.

 *G-Net* firstly requires the selection of the subsystem to analyze, among all the elements of a drinking water infrastructure, both linear (e.g. water mains) and punctual (e.g. tanks, pumping systems, etc.). Secondly, the user should select the kind of analysis to carry out (Figure 2a), i.e. physical or CBR vulnerability assessment. Additional data related to the input variables in the BBN can be manually or automatically associated to the file (Figure 2b). If some data concerning a certain variable are not available, a uniform probability distribution is considered and the BBN propagates the related uncertainty up to the output variables.

Once the GIS pre-processing is complete, *G-Net* exports a table for the input variables in a format easily manageable by Netica<sup>TM</sup> (Figure 2c). Following the vulnerability assessment procedure in Netica<sup>TM</sup>, a table with modeling results can be imported again in GIS, and joined to the available file, through the same toolbox. Afterwards, the resulting BBN is shown in the vulnerability map (Figure  $2d$ ).

#### **3.2 Uncertainty analysis**

The present section aims at defining a method to analyze and map the uncertainty associated to BBNs, supporting the identification of its root causes. Reference is made to the work by Marcot (2012), who suggested metrics for estimating model performances and uncertainty. Referring to BBNs, uncertainty pertains to the dispersion of Posterior Probability Distribution (PPD), i.e. the spread of alternative predictions.

 Firstly, the sensitivity analysis (SA) supports determining the degree to which a variation in PPD is explained by other variables, and depicts the underlying probability structure of a model (Marcot 2012). It was performed with respect to the variable 'breaking vulnerability', and the results are proposed in the Table 1. The results of SA are also used for scenario analysis (see section 5).

## Table 1. Results of the sensitivity analysis performed with respect to the variable 'breaking vulnerability'

#### TABLE 1

The more sensitive to a variable the model is, the more important is to collect related information. Having reliable data on key variables is a crucial requisite to reduce uncertainty.

Secondly, the uncertainty associated to BBNs is estimated using the Shannon entropy  $H(X)$  referring to the output variable ('breaking vulnerability' for the vulnerability assessment model). It is defined as the average amount of information conveyed by a stochastic source of data. The concept of Shannon Entropy is fundamental in information theory and, besides sharing some intuition with Boltzmann's theory, some aspects are analogous to those used in statistical thermodynamics. The Shannon entropy can be used as a synthetic measure of uncertainty, related to the number of alternatives and characteristics of the probability distribution over the states of a random variable (Das 1999). It is expressed as follows, using a logarithmic form:

$$
H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i) \log P(x_i) \tag{1}
$$

 $H(X)$  measures the average information required in addition to the current knowledge to remove the ignorance associated to the probability distribution of  $X$ . If the current state of knowledge is complete, then  $H(X) = 0$ . If it is total ignorance (uniform probability distribution), the additional information required to pin down an alternative is maximum. A normalized value of entropy can be calculated as  $\overline{H}(X) = H(X)/H(X)_{max}$ . For the purposes of the present work, the Shannon entropy is used to estimate the uncertainty related to the main output variables (i.e. 'breaking vulnerability' and 'impacts').

#### **3.3 Impact assessment**

The levels and types of adverse impacts are the result of a physical event interacting with vulnerable elements. The aim of emergency managers is directly related to the reduction of impacts, both before  and after a disaster occurs (McCormick 2016). Correctly assessing the impacts of an emergency is not a straightforward task, due to the complexity associated to a comprehensive analysis of costs and consequences (Sobradelo et al. 2015).

 For the purpose of the present work, the impact assessment is performed through another BBN (Figure 3), based on the following key variables:

'Flow rate': measure of the service loss, depending on the number of users potentially affected. The values 'high', 'medium' and 'low' are defined considering whether the ratio between the local flow rate and the maximum upstream value is higher than 0.7, between 0.3 and  $0.7$  or lower than  $0.3$ .

<sup>-</sup> 'Diameter': measure of the cost for repair, proportional to pipe diameter. The values 'high', 'medium' and 'low' are defined for each element considering whether the ratio between the local diameter and the maximum value is higher than 0.7, between 0.3 and 0.7 or lower than 0.3.

# - 'Relevance': defines the presence of critical users and services (e.g. hospitals). The values 'high', 'medium' and 'low' are defined considering the importance of the services depending on the infrastructure.

'Redundancy': defines the presence of additional paths for water supply. The values 'Yes' and 'No' are defined considering the presence of other paths that can be activated.

#### $\overline{1}9$  FIG 3

#### Figure 3. BBN for impact assessment

#### **4. L'Aquila case study**

 L'Aquila province (central Italy) was struck by a severe earthquake on 6 April 2009. Several damages to structures and infrastructures were detected over a broad area (Kongar et al. 2017). Referring to the water supply system, the major damage occurred on an important steel pipe (diameter 600 mm;  pressure 25–30 atm), which failed because crossing the surface trace of a fault activated during the earthquake (Pagano et al. 2017). The operation of the whole system was stopped in order to allow the restoration of infrastructural functionality and to limit the impacts of the multiple damages occurred in the urban distribution system. According to the interviews held with technicians involved in emergency operations, the fragmented and uncertain knowledge related to infrastructural conditions, particularly in the urban area, was a key limit during emergency operations. The available data were often not reliable and directly usable, since mainly deriving from personal experience, and thus difficult to share, visualize and integrate. Most of emergency operators acknowledged the lack of reliable infrastructural information as a main issue hampering the effectiveness of emergency management strategies.

#### **5. Results and discussion**

#### **5.1 Vulnerability assessment**

 The main results of the vulnerability assessment procedure, performed through *G-Net* in L'Aquila case study, are represented in Figure 5(a) along with the results of the uncertainty assessment. These results are identified in the following as the 'BASE' scenario. The map plots the probability values associated to the state 'high' of the variable 'breaking vulnerability'.

The Figure 5(a) shows the presence of several elements having values of 'breaking vulnerability' from 'medium' to 'high'. Model predictions were tested comparing the results with the position of the main pipe breaks occurred during the earthquake. Particularly, the highest values of 'breaking vulnerability' were found for the pipe damaged in 2009. Then, other elements characterized by a significantly high 'breaking vulnerability' were identified as well, and the result discussed with GSA S.p.A., resulting in a correspondence with some well-known vulnerabilities of the infrastructure.

#### **5.2 Uncertainty analysis and mapping**

 Starting from the results of the SA (Section 3.2), an influence analysis was performed. It allows evaluating (and comparing) the effects on PPD from selected input variables set to specific scenario values. Conducting influence runs can help reveal the degree to which individual or sets of input variables could affect output probabilities. This is helpful in a decision-setting, where management might prioritize activities to best effect desirable, or to avoid undesirable outcomes (Marcot 2012).

The following scenarios were analyzed and discussed:

- $\bullet$  BEST Scenario: all the variables to their optimal state i.e. minimizing the vulnerability of the system.
- WORST Scenario: all the variables to their worst state i.e. maximizing the vulnerability of the system.
- UNCERTAIN Scenario: all the variables to an 'unknown' state  $-$  i.e. the input variables have uniform probability distribution, in case no information is available.

Three additional scenarios were built as well, changing the state of some variables according to the results of the SA. The variables modified in each scenario are identified in the Table 1.

- $\bullet$  SENSIT (1). The scenario is built setting three key environmental variables to the worst state: 'seismicity', 'existing instabilities' and 'dynamic loads'. All the variables considered in this scenario represent external conditions, and thus their state cannot be improved.
- SENSIT (2). The scenario is built considering the positive impact of actions performed on variables that can be modified through specific strategies. These variables may be representative of both structural and operational aspects. In this scenario, a subset of variables is set to the best state.
- $\bullet$  SENSIT (3). The scenario is built considering the four most influential variables, according to the sensitivity analysis, all set to the worst state.

 The results are summarized (according to Marcot 2012) in terms of PPD of the output variable 'breaking vulnerability' (Figure 4). The 'BEST', 'WORST' and 'UNCERTAIN' scenarios show an intuitive PPD for the output variable. The comparison between the scenarios 'SENSIT (3)' and 'SENSIT (1)' suggest that few variables, mainly related to environmental conditions, are highly influential on the result. From a practical point of view, this means that a deep knowledge of the environment in which a system is located (e.g. seismicity of the area, existing instabilities) is crucial for the reliable estimate of 'breaking vulnerability'. The Scenario 'SENSIT (2)' is indeed relevant in order to assess the impact of potential improvements on infrastructural and operational features. Although the effect on the output PPD is lower, acting on the infrastructure and changing operative conditions may contribute to reduce significantly the vulnerability level of the system.

#### FIG 4

Figure 4. Results of the influence analysis in the scenarios

The Shannon entropy was then used to produce uncertainty maps, as shown in Fig. 5. Referring to the 'BASE' scenario, the values of  $H(X)$  were computed for the whole network and spatially plotted along with the results of the vulnerability assessment (Fig. 5a). The same procedure was used to map the impacts magnitude and the related uncertainty (Fig. 5b).

The relevance of  $H(X)$  for uncertainty assessment was further tested through specific simulations, analyzing the impacts of the lack of important input information on the reliability of model results. The 'BASE' Scenario was built considering a full knowledge of the input variables required by the model. Referring also to Table 1, the following scenarios were created:

•  $U(1)$  Scenario considers complete uncertainty for the input variables identified with (1) in Table 1. Three highly influential environmental variables (according to the SA): 'seismicity', 'existing instabilities' and 'dynamic loads', are treated as unknown.

 U(2) Scenario considers complete uncertainty for the input variables identified with (2) in Table 1. Both structural and operative features are set to a uniform probability distribution.

 $\bullet$  U(3) Scenario considers uncertainty for the input variables identified with (3) in Table 1 and the four most relevant variables according to the SA are set as unknown.

The  $H(X)$  was used in the cited scenarios, to quantify the cumulative uncertainty related to unknown inputs. Following the 'chain rule' for entropy, the global entropy of a group of random variables was computed as the sum of conditional entropies. The values of  $H(X)$  are 0, 0.067, 0.012 and 0.083 respectively for BASE,  $U(1)$ ,  $U(2)$  and  $U(3)$  scenarios. This suggests that although the scenario  $U(2)$ is characterized by a higher number of unknown variables, their impact on modeling results is lower if compared to the key variables neglected in both  $U(1)$  and  $U(3)$  scenarios. Both  $U(1)$  and  $U(3)$  scenarios suggest that the knowledge related to environmental conditions is a key requirement to perform a reliable vulnerability assessment. Furthermore, referring particularly to the scenario U(3), the highest value of  $H(X)$  is representative of a more critical condition, due to the highly uncertain set of available input data.

#### **5.3 Impact assessment**

The results of the impact assessment can be represented, as in the Figure 5b, based on the probability associated to the state 'high' of the variable 'impacts'. Both a numerical and a chromatic scale are used. As already discussed, the map represents also the associated uncertainty.

#### $\overline{1}$ 19 FIG 5

 Figure 5. a) Results of vulnerability assessment and related uncertainty; b) Results of impacts assessment and related uncertainty.

#### **5.4 Recommendations for decision-makers**

 The present section aims at supporting decision-makers in prioritizing the interventions on a drinking water supply infrastructure. The values of infrastructural vulnerability, the magnitude of the expected  impacts, and the role of uncertainty are jointly taken into account. The network elements are compared considering different combinations of 'vulnerability under uncertainty' and 'impacts under uncertainty'. Considering the drinking water supply infrastructure under analysis, each network element is characterized by the set of attributes  $A = {\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_{1u}, \alpha_{2u}}$ , such that  $A<sub>L</sub>$  $\{v_h, v_m, v_l, e_h, e_m, e_l, u_{1h}, u_{1m}, u_{1l}, u_{2h}, u_{2m}, u_{2l}\}\)$  represents the set of all possible values that the elements of  $A$  can take, over which a decision-maker has preferences. The attributes are:

- $\alpha_1$ , vulnerability based on the state 'high' of the variable 'breaking vulnerability'. The possible 8 values of the attribute are  $\alpha_1 = \{ high (v_h), medium (v_m), low (v_l) \};$
- $\alpha_2$ , impact assessment through the analysis of the exposure to the potential effects of failures 10 represented by the values  $\alpha_2 = \{ high (e_h), medium (e_m), low (e_l) \};$ 
	- $\alpha_{1u}$  and  $\alpha_{2u}$  uncertainty associated respectively to vulnerability and impact assessment, according to  $\bar{H}(X)$ ,  $\alpha_{1u} = \{high(u_{1h})$ , medium  $(u_{1m})$ , low  $(u_{1l})\}$ and  $a_{2u} = \{ high (u_{2h}) , medium (u_{2m}) , low (u_{2l}) \}.$

Throughout this section, the symbol ≻ denotes a decision maker's preference relation,  $x > y$  means that  $x$  is preferred to  $y$ . The decision-makers have the following order of preferences: a higher value of vulnerability/exposure has priority compared to a lower one:  $v_h > v_m > v_l$  and  $e_h > e_m > e_l$ . The preferences elicitation was performed through semi-structured interviews held with Civil Protection operators and engineers working for the local water utility. Considering the combination between the two attributes, the decision-makers should prioritize the highest possible value of  $\alpha_1$  combined with the highest possible value of  $\alpha_2$ :  $v_h e_h > v_h e_m > v_m e_h > v_h e_h > v_l e_h > v_l e_h > v_l e_m > v_l e_m$  $v_l e_l$ . However, as discussed in section 5.2, the 'uncertainty' is a key attribute that decision-makers take into account. Considering the preferences on the other attributes, a lower value of uncertainty associated respectively to vulnerability and impact assessment is preferred to a higher value:  $u_{1l}u_{2l}$  $u_{1l}u_{2m} > u_{1m}u_{2l} > u_{1l}u_{2h} > u_{1m}u_{2m} > u_{1n}u_{2l} > u_{1n}u_{2h} > u_{1h}u_{2m} > u_{1h}u_{2h}$ 

 Accordingly to the preference statements, we obtain the following compact representation supporting the definition of a ranking order among the different potential 81 conditions:

$$
v_{h}e_{h}u_{1l}u_{2l} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1l}u_{2m} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1m}u_{2l} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1l}u_{2h} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1m}u_{2m} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1h}u_{2l} >
$$
  
\n
$$
v_{h}e_{h}u_{1m}u_{2h} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1h}u_{2m} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1h}u_{2h} > v_{h}e_{m}u_{1l}u_{2l} > v_{h}e_{m}u_{1l}u_{2m} > \cdots >
$$

$$
5 \qquad \qquad \succ \cdots \succ v_l e_l u_{1h} u_{2h} = r_1 \succ r_2 \succ r_3 \succ \cdots \succ r_{81}
$$

 Consequentially, in relation to the water supply network under analysis, we obtain the spatial representation of ranking as in the Fig. 6. The mapping of results allows decision-makers to identify the elements of the network where interventions should be primarily oriented either in emergency conditions or in ordinary management, to reduce the risk levels for the whole system.

#### FIG 6

Figure 6. Ranking of the network elements

#### **6. Conclusions**

This work describes a DSS for decision-making in the emergency management of drinking water supply systems. The methodology was implemented in L'Aquila case study. The model is composed of a BBN-based vulnerability assessment tool for drinking water supply infrastructures, with the related uncertainty analysis and a BBN-based model to estimate impacts magnitude, with the related uncertainty analysis. The tools are integrated in a comprehensive methodology, based on preferences orders, capable to jointly take into account all the previous information, and to define a ranking order among the elements of the infrastructural system. This ranking simply suggests a priority of action for decision-makers. Overcoming one of the main limitations of BBNs -i.e. the difficulties in performing spatial analyses- the development of a GIS interface (*G-Net*), for data structuring and results analysis, revealed highly useful to improve the effectiveness of the tool, helping in visualizing the outcomes, quantifying uncertainty, and identifying the final ranking. Future activities will be oriented mainly to the analysis of temporal aspects related to the dynamic evolution of system  behavior (see e.g. Pagano et al. 2017) and to the implementation of models based on complexity theory to support the analysis of interconnected systems.

#### **Acknowledgments**

The present research activity was developed within a research project funded by the Italian Department of Civil Protection ('Intesa Operativa del 19.12.2006 tra DPC e IRSA—Rep. 618).

#### **References**

 Das B (1999) Representing Uncertainties Using Bayesian Networks. DSTO-TR-0918, DSTO Electronics and Surveillance Research Laboratory, Australia

Diao K, Sweetapple C, Farmani R, Fu G, Ward S, Butler D (2016) Global resilience analysis of water distribution systems. Water Res 106:383-393. doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2016.10.011

 Eidsvig UMK, Kristensen K, Vangelsten BV (2017) Assessing the risk posed by natural hazards to infrastructures. Nat Hazards Earth Syst Sci 17:481-504. doi:10.5194/nhess-17-481-2017.

EPA (2015) Systems Measures of Water Distribution System Resilience. EPA 600/R-14/383.

 Fragiadakis M, Christodoulou SE, Vamvatsikos D (2013) Reliability Assessment of Urban Water Distribution Networks Under Seismic Loads. Water Resour Manage 27: 3739-3764. doi:10.1007/s11269-013-0378-0

 Francis RA, Guikema SD, Henneman L. (2014) Bayesian Belief Networks for predicting drinking water distribution system pipe breaks. Reliab Eng Syst Saf 130:1–11. doi: 10.1016/j.ress.2014.04.024.

 Gaudard L, Romerio F (2015) Natural hazard risk in the case of an emergency: the real options' approach. Nat Hazards 75(1): 473–488. doi:10.1007/s11069-014-1330-1

 Gonzalez-Redin J, Luque S, Poggio L, Smith R, Gimona A (2016) Spatial Bayesian belief networks as a planning decision tool for mapping ecosystem services trade-offs on forested landscapes. Environ Res 144:15–26. doi: 10.1016/j.envres.2015.11.009.

 John A, Yang Z, Riahi R, Wang J (2016) A risk assessment approach to improve the resilience of a seaport system using Bayesian networks. Ocean Eng 111:136–147. doi: 10.1016/j.oceaneng.2015.10.048.

 Johnson S, Low-Choy S, Mengersen K (2011) Integrating Bayesian Networks and Geographic Information Systems: Good Practice Examples. Integr Environ Assess Manag 8(3): 473–479. doi: 10.1002/ieam.262

 Kabir G, Demissie G, Sadiq R, Tesfamariam S (2015) Integrating failure prediction models for water mains: Bayesian belief network based data fusion. Knowl Based Syst 85:159–169. doi. 10.1016/j.knosys.2015.05.002

 Kabir G, Sadiq R, Tesfamariam S (2016) A fuzzy Bayesian belief network for safety assessment of oil and gas pipelines. Struct Infrastruct Eng 12(8):874–889. doi:10.1080/15732479.2015.1053093

Karimi HA, Houston BH (1996) Evaluating strategies for integrating environmental models with GIS: current trends and future needs. Comput Environ Urban Syst 20(6):413-425. doi: 10.1016/S0198-9715(97)00006-9

 Kongar I, Esposito S, Giovinazzi S (2017) Post-earthquake assessment and management for infrastructure systems: learning from the Canterbury (New Zealand) and L'Aquila (Italy) earthquakes. Bull Earthq Eng 15(2): 589-620. doi: 10.1007/s10518-015-9761-y

 Landuyt D, Van der Biest K Broekx S, Staes J Meire P, Goethals PLM (2015) A GIS plug-in for Bayesian belief networks: Towards a transparent software framework to assess and visualise uncertainties in ecosystem service mapping. Environ Model Softw 71:30-38. doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2015.05.002.

 Liu R, Chen Y, Wu J, Gao L, Barrett D, Xu T, Li L, Huang C, Yu J (2016) Assessing spatial likelihood of flooding hazard using naive Bayes and GIS: a case study in Bowen Basin, Australia. Stoch Environ Res Risk Assess 30(6):1575-1590. doi: 10.1007/s00477-015-1198-y

Mala-Jetmarova H, Sultanova N, Savic D (2017) Lost in optimisation of water distribution systems? A literature review of system operation, Environ Model Softw 93:209-254. doi:10.1016/j.envsoft.2017.02.009.

Marcot BG (2012) Metrics for evaluating performance and uncertainty of Bayesian network models. Ecol Model 230:50– 62. doi: 10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2012.01.013

McCormick S (2016) New tools for emergency managers: an assessment of obstacles to use and implementation. Disasters 40(2): 207−225. doi: 10.1111/disa.12141.

Molina JL, Farmani R, Bromley J (2011) Aquifers management through evolutionary bayesian networks:the Altiplano case study (SE Spain). Water Resour Manag 25(14):3883–3909. doi:10.1007/s11269-011-9893-z

 Molina JL, Zazo S, Rodríguez-Gonzálvez P, González-Aguilera D (2016) Innovative Analysis of Runoff Temporal Behavior through Bayesian Networks. Water 8(11), 484. doi:10.3390/w8110484

Pagano A, Giordano R, Portoghese I, Fratino U, Vurro M (2014a) A Bayesian vulnerability assessment tool for drinking water mains under extreme events. Nat Hazards 74(3):2193–2227. doi: 10.1007/s11069-014-1302-5

 Pagano A, Giordano R, Portoghese I, Vurro M, Fratino U (2014b) Emergency Management of Drinking Water Infrastructures Based on a Bayesian Decision Support System. Vulnerability, Uncertainty, and Risk: Quantification, Mitigation, and Management - Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Vulnerability and Risk Analysis and Management, ICVRAM 2014 and the 6th International Symposium on Uncertainty Modeling and Analysis, ISUMA 2014, pp. 2012- 2021.

Pagano A, Pluchinotta I, Giordano R, Vurro M (2017) Drinking water supply in resilient cities: notes from L'Aquila earthquake case study. Sustain Cities Soc 28:435-449. doi: 10.1016/j.scs.2016.09.005.

Pearl J (1988) Probabilistic Reasoning in Intelligent Systems, Morgan Kaufmann, San Francisco

 Perng SY, Buscher M (2015) Uncertainty and Transparency: Augmenting Modelling and Prediction for Crisis Response, Proceedings of the ISCRAM 2015 Conference, Kristiansand, May 24-27, Palen, Büscher, Comes & Hughes eds.

 Phan TD, Smart JCR, Capon SJ, Hadwen WL, Sahin O (2016) Applications of Bayesian belief networks in water resource management: A systematic review. Environ Model Softw 85:98-111. doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2016.08.006

 Sobradelo R, Martı J, Kilburn C, Lopez C (2015) Probabilistic approach to decision-making under uncertainty during volcanic crises: retrospective application to the El Hierro (Spain) 2011 volcanic crisis. Nat Hazards 76:979–998. doi: 10.1007/s11069-014-1530-8

 Tanyimboh TT (2017) Informational Entropy: a Failure Tolerance and Reliability Surrogate for Water Distribution Networks. Water Resour Manage 31:3189-3204. doi:10.1007/s11269-017-1684-

Tateosian L (2015) Python For ArcGIS. Springer. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-18398-5

 Uusitalo L (2007) Advantages and challenges of Bayesian networks in environmental modeling. Ecol Model 203(3–4):312–318. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2006.11.033

Uusitalo L, Lehikoinen A, Helle I, Myrberg K (2015) An overview of methods to evaluate uncertainty of deterministic models in decision support. Environ Model Softw 63:24-31. doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2014.09.017

 van der Keur P, van Bers C, Henriksen HJ, Nibanupudi HK, Yadav S, Wijaya R, Subiyono A, Mukerjee N, Hausmann HJ, Hare M, van Scheltinga CT, Pearn G, Jaspers F (2016) Identification and analysis of uncertainty in disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation in South and Southeast Asia, Int J Disaster Risk Reduct 16: 208–214. doi:10.1016/j.ijdrr.2016.03.002

Wu J, Zhou R, Xu S, Wu Z (2017) Probabilistic analysis of natural gas pipeline network accident based on Bayesian network, Journal of Loss Prevention in the Process Industries, 46:126-136. doi:10.1016/j.jlp.2017.01.025.

 Zhao X, Cai H, Chen Z, Gong H, Feng Q (2016) Assessing urban lifeline systems immediately after seismic disaster based on emergency resilience. Struct Infrastruct Eng 12(12):1634-1649. doi: 10.1080/15732479.2016.1157609

1



3







![](_page_27_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_28_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_28_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_29_Figure_1.jpeg)

2 The present section aims at providing additional details on the BBN-based vulnerability assessment

- 3 methodology, mainly focusing on a set of specific information related to model building and
- 4 validation.

 The following Table S1 (from Pagano et al. 2014a) includes a detailed description of all the input variables included in the BBN proposed in Fig. 1 of the paper. The meaning and the states of the variables are included. It is worth to consider that mutual exclusivity is encoded via the states of nodes, having particular attention in a proper identification of specific causal pathways (i.e. the specific vulnerability mechanisms).

10

![](_page_30_Picture_425.jpeg)

### 11 **Table S1** Description of the input variables adopted, of their meaning and states

![](_page_31_Picture_402.jpeg)

1

 The variables included in the model (the total number of nodes is 40) were also topologically ordered. 3 Given a DAG, the topological ordering of variables  $(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$  is an ordering in which parents are ordered before the children. The topological order (one of the possible topological orders) of the elements of the network is: (External pressures, Soil resistivity, Material, Pipe Coating, Cathodic protection, Thickness, Hydraulic variability, Operating pressure/Nominal pressure, Thrust restraint, Soil mechanical characteristics, Diameter, Joint Frequency, Joint type, Seismicity, Existing Instabilities, Dynamic loads, Depth, Visibility, Accessibility, Surveillance, Length, Monitoring, Extra maintenance, Age/Design life, Maintenance performed/scheduled; Environmental aggressiveness, Corrosion resiliency, Hydraulic efficiency, Joint extraction vulnerability, Mechanical features, External stress level, 'Passive' protection level, 'Active' protection level, Actual conditions; Protection level, Corrosion vulnerability, Breaking vulnerability, Safety level; Physical vulnerability).

14

 D-Separation can be considered in order to analyze independence of nodes. Particularly, according to the D-separation rule, A is d-separated from B by C if all the paths between sets A and B are blocked by elements of C. Such rule enables to quickly determine whether a finding at one node can possibly change the beliefs at another by only looking at the link structure of a Bayes net. Equivalently, D- Connected nodes can be also identified, i.e. the nodes whose beliefs could change if findings were obtained for a currently selected node, based on the graph connectivity (or vice-versa). The following 21 table S2 summarizes, for each node of the BBN, the set of D-Connected nodes (the complementary sub-set will be D-Separated).

![](_page_31_Picture_403.jpeg)

![](_page_31_Picture_404.jpeg)

![](_page_32_Picture_248.jpeg)

<b>Protection level</b>	Length, Monitoring, Surveillance, 'Active' protection level, Accessibility,
	Visibility, Depth, 'Passive' protection level, External stress level, Protection
	level, Safety level, Breaking vulnerability, Physical vulnerability
<b>Safety level</b>	Length, Monitoring, Surveillance, 'Active' protection level, Accessibility,
	Visibility, Depth, 'Passive' protection level, External stress level, Protection
	level, Safety level, Breaking vulnerability, Mechanical features, Safety level,
	Extra-maintenance, Age/Design life, Maintenance: performed/scheduled,
	Corrosion vulnerability, Physical vulnerability
<b>Breaking vulnerability</b>	Extra-maintenance, Age/Design life, Maintenance: performed/scheduled, Actual
	conditions, Corrosion vulnerability, Hydraulic variability, Hydraulic efficiency,
	Operating pressure/Nominal pressure, Joint extraction vulnerability, Diameter,
	Soil mechanical characteristics, Mechanical features, Flexibility, Jint frequency,
	Joint type, Seismicity, Existing instabilities, Dynamic loads, Depth, External
	stress level, 'Passive' protection level, Protection level, Safety level, Breaking
	vulnerability, Physical vulnerability
<b>Physical vulnerability</b>	All the variables are D-Connected.

<sup>1</sup>

 In the following Table S3, the junction tree of the vulnerability assessment BBN is included. A junction tree is an internal structure that Netica uses for belief updating. Netica compiles a Bayes net 4 or decision net into a junction tree for efficiency. The junction tree T of triangulated net G is a tree with the cliques of G as nodes, such that for every node N of G, if we remove from T all cliques not containing N, the remaining subtree remains connected. In other words, any two cliques containing N are either adjacent in T or connected by a path made entirely of cliques that contain N.

8

9 **Table S3**. Junction tree

![](_page_33_Picture_318.jpeg)

![](_page_34_Picture_58.jpeg)

4

8

![](_page_35_Picture_134.jpeg)

- 9 2 LAMSADE CNRS, Univ. Paris-Dauphine, PSL Research Univ.
- 10 irene.pluchinotta@dauphine.fr
- 11 3 DICATECh, Politecnico di Bari
- 12 umberto.fratino@poliba.it
- 13 \* Correspondence: alessandro.pagano@ba.irsa.cnr.it; Tel.: +39-080-5820506

 $\pm$ 

#### **Abstract**

 The availability and the quality of drinking water are key requirements for the well-being and the safety of a community, both in ordinary conditions and in case of disasters. Providing safe drinking water in emergency contributes to limit the intensity and the duration of crises, and is thus one of the 5 main concerns for decision-makers, who must. In such cases, decision-makers have to operate under significant uncertainty due to the incomplete and limited set of information available. The present work proposes a Decision Support System for the emergency management of drinking water supply systems, which is built integrating: i) a vulnerability assessment model based on Bayesian Belief 9 Networks; iii) with the related an uncertainty assessment model; iii) a model for impact, and related uncertainty assessment, based on Bayesian Belief Networks. The results of these models are jointly analyzed, providing decision-makers with a ranking of the priority of intervention. A GIS interface 12 (*G-Net*) is developed to manage both input spatial information, and results. The methodology is 13 implemented in L'Aquila case study, which is particularly relevant in the recent history of disasters. 14 discussing Tthe potentialities associated to the use of Bayesian Networks to support decision-15 makers the tool dealing with information and data uncertainty, are discussed.

- **Keywords**: Emergency management; Drinking water supply systems; Bayesian Belief Networks; Uncertainty Analysis; Decision Support System
- 

#### 1 **1. Introduction**

 Lifeline systems consist of a set of interconnected infrastructures (e.g. water, gas, electricity, communication, transportation systems) supporting the provision of critical services and contributing to guarantee the quality of life for citizens (Zhao et al. 2016). Since mModern societies highly rely on infrastructures, which provide critical services and guarantee the quality of life for citizens (Zhao 6 et al. 2016). Nevertheless T, the the current increase in both frequency and intensity of extreme events 7 contributes to create additional challenges to the infrastructure providers operating in the aftermath of high-impacts occurrences (Eidsvig et al. 2017). Among all lifelinesParticularly, water supply systems infrastructures are essential for health, sanitary and economic reasons and, consequently, there is high pressure on water organizations to provide customers with a continual and efficient water supply, under specific delivery requirements and operational constraints (Bagheri et al. 2010, Mala-Jetmarova et al. 2017).

13 Several approaches are mentioned in the scientific and grey literature aiming atavailable for 14 protecting water supply infrastructures from a wide variety of stresses, either supporting system 15 performances assessment in case of extreme events (e.g. EPA 2015) or driving the selection of 16 suitable actions for vulnerabilities mitigation (Fragiadakis et al. 2013, Pagano et al. 2014a). Methods 17 to assess the performances of infrastructural systems under stress typically vary with the type of 18 system, the aim or of the specific phaseanalysis of the analysis (e.g. planning or emergency 19 management), and the available information. Probabilistic modelling, statistical analyses of past 20 events, empirical approaches, system dynamics-based approaches, agent-based approaches are 21 mentioned in the literature (EPA 2015, Eidsvig et al. 2017). A broad classification is generally into 22 qualitative, semi-quantitative and quantitative approaches (Pagano et al. 2014aa; Eidsvig et al. 2017). 23 Quantitative tools require detailed data and a higher computational burden, but generally provide 24 highly reliable numerical outcomes for decision-makingmakers, typically using numerical values and 25 detailed analyses of critical scenarios (e.g. Fragiadakis et al 2013, Diao et al. 2016). Qualitative

1 approaches support ranking risk levels, screening scenarios and identifying critical scenarios-ones 2 (Eidsvig et al. 2017), based on the use of words or classes (e.g. 'high', 'medium', 'low'). The class 3 of sSemi-quantitative techniques (e.g. probabilistic methods such as Bayesian Belief Networks) 4 guarantees a compromise between the such main features of the two-classes of tools and data 5 requirement.

6 One of the most challenging tasks in all-these methods is uncertainty management, a key aspect also 7 to be incorporated in water supply systems management (Beh et al. 2017).

8 Uncertainty represents the lack of exact knowledge, regardless of its causes (Refsgaard et al. 9 2007), which is inherently Ffirstly in extractionally is associated to water supply systems 10 planning, design and operationoperation, due e.g. to structural characteristics and hydraulic capacity, 11 variable demand and random fluctuations service level ((Malm et al. 2015, Tanyimboh 2017). 12 Secondly Specifically, particularly in emergency conditions, besides the uncertainties related to their 13 emergency onset, nature and evolution (Perng and Buscher 2015), as well as the difficulty in 14 collecting reliable data, model limitations, and the ambiguity in the understanding of specific 15 phenomena imply limitations in the capability to describe a given infrastructural system, and to 16 forecast its behavioral evolution should be properly considered during the emergency. This These 17 issues deeply affect the decision-makers capability to identify optimal decisions for emergency 18 management (Pagano et al. 2014b, Gaudard and Romerio 2015). Several scholars highlighted the 19 need to eEnhanceing the understanding of the uncertainty uncertainties could support in order to 20 developing a realisticrepresentative picture of the current knowledge and its potential deficiencies, 21 and to avoid overconfidence in quantitative data and marginalization of non-quantifiable information 22 (Uusitalo et al. 2015, Sword-Daniels et al. 2016, van der Keur et al. 2016).

23 Bayesian Belief Networks (BBNs) have shown several useful features to support decision-making 24 under uncertainty for water supply systems (Molina et al. 2011). Firstly Particularly, BBNs allow the 25 integration of various types of information<del>, (e.g. analytical models, expert knowledge, literature and</del>

1 historical data), combining qualitative and quantitative aspects (Giordano et al. 2015, Gonzalez-2 Redin et al. 2016, Phan et al. 2016) that can be combined also with new variables and knowledge 3 (Landuyt et al. 2013, Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016). and . They Secondly, they support reasoning from 4 uncertain evidence to uncertain conclusion (John et al. 2016), treating both . The uncertainties (data 5 and model uncertainty, model uncertainty or both) are explicitly treated and included in BBNs by 6 propagating them throughout the network up to the final node (Uusitalo 2007, Marcot 2012, Uusitalo 7 et al. 2015, Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016).More specifically, they can easily handle missing or little 8 data, and typically yield good prediction. Furthermore, BBNs also represent a valuable tool for 9 decision-makers, since costs and risks associated to different management strategies can be easily 10 assessed (Uusitalo, 2007; Mohajerani et al. 2017).

11 Within this framework, the present work describes the development of a Decision Support System 12 (DSS) for the emergency management of drinking water supply systems infrastructuresexposed to 13 extreme events. Specifically, T the DSS is based on a the integration of: i) a probabilistic vulnerability 14 assessment model, based on Bayesian Belief NetworksBBNs (BBN), which is used to identify the 15 most critical elements of the characterize the infrastructural system supporting in the identification of 16 the critical elements; ii) an the associated uncertainty analysis estimaterelated to the results of the 17 vulnerability assessment model; iii) a BBN-based probabilistic model for impact assessment; iv) the 18 associated uncertainty estimate, useful to quantify the magnitude of impacts of an event. The most 19 relevant innovation of the present work is twofold. Firstly, the definition of a methodology to perform 20 a joint vulnerability and impact assessment of infrastructural failure, with an explicit uncertainty 21 analysis. This is a crucial requisite in Athe definition of a joint analysis of set of decision-makers' 22 preferences in emergency to support defining over the network attributes is proposed, in order to 23 provide a ranking of the a priority of intervention actions in emergency. Secondly, overcoming one 24 of the main limits of BBNs, which are not inherently characterized by a spatial nature, A a GIS 25 interface (*G-Net*) is was also developedbuilt to support the management of input spatial information

1 and results visualization. The DSS was developed and tested with the cooperation of the Italian 2 Department of Civil Protection (DPC), tested and of with several Italian water utilities (Acquedotto 3 Pugliese S.p.A., Gran Sasso Acqua S.p.A. and AIMAG S.p.A.), and implemented . The DSS has been 4 then tested in a relevant case study: L'Aquila (Italy) earthquake in 2009.

5 The paper is structured as follows. After the present introduction, Section 2 analyzes relevant 6 applications provides an overview of BBNs features and applications in the field of emergency management for infrastructural systems, focusing on the key potentialities and limits in decision- making under uncertainty. Section 3 provides a description of describes the architecture of the developed tool. Section 4 discusses the relevance of L'Aquila case study, while section 5 includes a discussion on the main results related to the implementation of *G-Net*, analyzing its potential and limitations.

#### 12 **2. Methodological background: Bayesian Belief Networks**

13 A BBNs combines graph theory and probability theory, consisting of a directed acyclic graphs - and 14 an associated joint probability distribution (e.g. Pearl 1988 and Jensen 1996). The graph nodes 15 represent variables, whereas the edges represent conditional dependencies. The strength of the 16 dependency is represented by conditional probabilities: Each each node variable  $X_i$  is associated to a 17 probability function  $P(X_i|p_{ai})$  that takes as input  $p_{ai}$ , i.e. a set of predecessors of  $X_i$  which make  $X_i$ 18 independent on all other predecessors. specific Variables that are judged as direct causes of  $X_i$  satisfy 19 this property, and are the set of values for the node's parent variables of the node. and gives the 20 probability of the variable represented by the node, thus defining the intensity of the dependency 21 (Zhang et al. 2016). BBNs thus allow the probabilistic representation of interactions, which support 22 to picture the relationships between the variables (Pearl 1988, Phan et al. 2016). The importance of 23 BBNs is mainly related to the ability to coordinate bi-directional inferences, supporting the 24 representation and analysis of uncertain knowledge as well as different modes of reasoning (Pearl 25 1988).

 BBNs have become an increasingly popular modelling technique to deal with complexity and 2 uncertainty and, particularly, several studies focused on the potentialities of BBNs to support decision-making in different several emergency conditions. Just to provide a few examples, BBNs 4 were used to describe the structure, uncertainty and losses of earthquake disaster chains ((e.g. Wang et al. 2013), to help volcano crisis management (Sobradelo et al. 2015, ) and to analyze natural gas pipeline network accidents, supporting emergency operation (Wu et al. 2017). BBNs helped overcoming the difficulties in decision-making for water supply systems, particularly considering the lack of information regarding their operation and failure conditions, supporting maintenance planning (Mokhtar et al. 2016). A participatory BBN modelling approach was used to develop a risk assessment tool for estimating water quality-related health risks associated with extreme events (Bertone et al. 2016).

12 Within the field of emergency managementR, several successful applications of BBNs referring 13 specifically to the analysis of water supply infrastructures exposed to external stresses,. BBNs were 14 mainly used to build a models for pipe breaks based onusing learning from past breaks-, integrating 15 multiple kinds of data and modeling explicitly the dependencies, using probabilities updates and a 16 representation of uncertainty (and covariate data, which proved insensitive to missing or incomplete 17 data (Francis et al. 2014, ). A BBN based failure prediction models was proposed for water mains, 18 integrating infrastructural features, soil information and pipe breakage data into a GIS (Kabir et al. 19 2015, ). Fuzzy Bayesian Belief Network were used by Kabir et al. (2016) for the safety assessment 20 of oil and gas pipelines, due to their capability to model explicitly the dependencies of events, update 21 probabilities and represent uncertain knowledge, thus strengthening decisions when empirical data 22 are lacking.

23 A wide scientific literature underlined that BBNs are  $\div$ able to support: $\div$  the integration of various 24 types of information, (e.g. analytical models, expert knowledge, literature and historical data)

25 (Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016, Phan et al. 2016), $\frac{1}{2}$  the possibility of reasoning from uncertain evidence

1 to uncertain conclusions (John et al. 2016), $\frac{1}{2}$  the explicit treatment of uncertainties (Uusitalo 2007, Uusitalo et al. 2015, Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016). Furthermore, BBNs are also flexible enough to support a revision of probabilities in the light of additional information or observations availability. Shabarchin and Tesfamariam (2016) developed a BBN-based model in GIS to assess internal

 corrosion for oil and gas pipelines, integrating also expert judgment. A decision support approach based on Fuzzy Bayesian Networks was developed for assessing the conditions of existing pipelines (Zhang et al. 2016). Bayesian Networks were used also to support water pipe leakage prediction (Leu 8 and Bui 2016).

9 Bayesian approaches BBNs have also some limitations. Firstly, continuous variables are not easily 10 integrated within BBNs, leading often to nodes that are often discretized with only a few states, and 11 in qualitative terms (e.g. 'high' or 'low'). These states might, provide providing only a coarse 12 representation of the node (Uusitalo, 2007). Secondly, the **BBNs** structure of BBNs is linear and 13 static, and does not directly account for the analysis of feedback loops and dynamic issues (Uusitalo, 14 2007<del>; Bertone et al. 2016</del>). Furthermore, BBNs do not natively provide a spatial representation of 15 variables.

16 Specifically referring to the last issue, Johnson et al. (2011) identified four main ways to integrate GIS and BBNs: i) GIS input to BBN, when GIS layers are used as input nodes; ii) GIS input to, and output from BBN, in case GIS is also used to visualize the output of a BBN; iii) BBN and GIS complex interactions, in case different layers of information from a GIS are combined; iv) BBN and 20 GIS within a larger framework, where BBNs model one factor and GIS models other factors in a 21 larger system. Integrated methodologies based on <del>on linking B</del>BNs with and GIS were recently proposed (e.g. Landuyt et al. 2015, Gonzalez-Redin et al. 2016, Molina et al. 2016, Liu et al. 2016), showing remarkable potentialities.

24 Referring to the most widely used BBNs software packages, none of them proposes meaningful ways 25 to graphically represent the uncertainties associated to the output. Nevertheless, several uUncertainty

![](_page_43_Picture_186.jpeg)

24 infrastructures based on BBNs, whose conceptual structure is described in details in Pagano et al.

![](_page_44_Picture_186.jpeg)

26 of the whole network (further details in Pagano et al. 2014a).

1 Several Based on the feedbacks on model functioning were collected mainly interacting with obtained 2 by the potential end-users of the tool, i.e. Dept. of Civil Protection (DPC, the emergency management 3 agency) and water utilities, . The main issues emerged are summarized in the following: i) a GIS 4 interface is neededwas built, in order to facilitate spatial data processing and the results spatial 5 representation of the results; ii) the a quantitative analysis of data and model uncertainty is crucial to 6 support decision-making in emergency; iii) the magnitude of impacts is a key driver for decision-7 makers; iv) integrating and taking jointly into account all these aspect is not a straightforward process. 8 The model was thus developed following the above issues/suggestions, and a GIS-based interface (*G-*9 *Net*) was built accordingly. Going further into details, tThe toolbox (*G-Net)* consists of an expanded 10 development of a GIS application supporting the vulnerability assessment of drinking water supply 11 infrastructures, with data, models and user interfaces all integrated in GIS environmenttool. G-NetIt 12 is specifically designed to support the integration with Netica<sup>TM</sup> software by means of an automated 13 procedure in which some typical GIS functions are organized in a specific workflow. The tool is 14 composed of customized interfaces working in ArcGIS® software (by Esri) environment with 15 wizards specifically configured as interface between Netica<sup>TM</sup> and ArcGIS<sup>®</sup>. 16 The tool has been designed using open-source Python scripting language, fully supported by 17 ArcGIS® and able to extend the basic functionality of GIS and to automate the workflow (Tateosian 2015). Following aA loosely-coupled integration strategy between ArcGIS<sup>®</sup> and Netica<sup>TM</sup> was used. 19 This means that the latter is not completely encapsulated within a GIS environment as in the tightly– 20 equalled approach, but takes advantage of the database, the visualization and the analysis capabilities 21 of a GIS (Karimi and Houston 1996, Johnson et al. 2011). From the technical point of view, the tool 22 has been developed in a GIS framework and customized using open-source Python scripting 23 language, fully supported by ArcGIS® and able to extend the basic functionality of GIS and to 24 automate the workflow (Tateosian 2015).

25

1 The global structure of the model is summarized in the following Fig. 2.

#### $\overline{F1G}$  2

![](_page_46_Picture_177.jpeg)

20 eapabilities of a GIS (Karimi and Houston 1996, Johnson et al. 2011). From the technical point of 21 view, the tool has been developed in a GIS framework and customized using open-source Python 22 seripting language, fully supported by ArcGIS<sup>®</sup> and able to extend the basic functionality of GIS and

23 to automate the workflow (Tateosian 2015).

1 A schematic overview of the procedure carried out by the tool is shown in the following the Fig.ure 2 32.

#### 3 FIG 32

4 Figure 32. *G-Net* procedure for vulnerability assessment and mapping: (a) selection of the analysis 5 to perform; (b) data association to the input variables; (c) input variables export procedure; (d) 6 output vulnerability map.

7 *G-Net* firstly requires the selection of the subsystem to analyze, among all the elements of a drinking 8 water infrastructure, both linear (e.g. water mains) and punctual (e.g. tanks, pumping systems, etc.), 9 available in vector data format (shapefile or features stored inside georeferenced database, both native 10 data format for Esri software). Secondly, the user should select the kind of analysis to carry out 11 (Figure  $\frac{3a}{a}$ ), i.e. physical or CBR vulnerability assessment. Additional data related to the input 12 variables in the BBN can be manually or automatically associated to the file, either through an 13 automatic overlay between the input vector and the available layers in the database, or through manual 14 attribution by the end user (Figure 3b2b). If the some data concerning a certain variable are not 15 available, the user could attribute a uniform probability distribution to the input data for this variable is 16 considered and the  $-BBN$  propagates the information about the related uncertainty up to the output 17 variables. The tool allows end-users also to define some variables using linguistic assessment, based 18 on fuzzy sets (Pagano et al. 2014a).

19 Once the GIS pre-processing is complete, *G-Net* exports a table for the input variables in a format 20 easily manageable by Netica<sup>TM</sup> (Figure  $3e^{2c}$ ). Following the vulnerability assessment procedure in 21 Netica<sup>TM</sup>, a table with modeling results can be imported again in GIS, and joined to the available file, 22 through the same toolbox. Afterwards, the resulting BBN results can be is shown in the vulnerability 23 map (Figure 3d2d). Additional functionalities are included in the toolbox, and an exhaustive help 24 accompanies each step of the procedure.

#### 1 **3.2 Uncertainty analysis**

 Estimating uncertainty is fundamental for effective decision-making. Such uncertainty may be either related to the inherent structure of the model ('conceptual' uncertainty) or to information quality ('data' uncertainty). Particularly the issue of 'data' uncertainty is crucial in emergency operations. Understanding the quality and quantity of the available information, as well as how to improve it, is crucial to improve decisions (Hsu et al. 2012).

7 The aim of the present section is to aims at defindefining a waymethod to analyze and map the 8 uncertainty associated to the Bayesian vulnerability assessment modelBBNs, also supporting the identification of its root causes. Reference is made to the work by Marcot (2012), who suggested metrics for estimating model performances and uncertainty. Referring to BBNs, uncertainty pertains to the dispersion of Pposterior probability Probability values Distribution (PPD), i.e. the spread of alternative predictions.

13 Firstly, the sensitivity analysis (SA) supports determining the degree to which a variation in PPD is 14 explained by other variables, and basically depicts the underlying probability structure of a model 15 (Marcot 2012, Pagano et al. 2014a). It was performed with respect to the variable 'breaking 16 vulnerability', and the results are proposed in the following Table 1. The results of SA are also used 17 (see section 5 for details), for scenario analysis (see section 5).

18 Table 1. Results of the sensitivity analysis performed with respect to the variable 'breaking

19 vulnerability'

![](_page_48_Picture_234.jpeg)

![](_page_49_Picture_285.jpeg)

1

 Sensitivity is calculated with input variables set to uniform prior probability distributions (Marcot 2012) and supports in the identification of the most influential variables of the BBN. The more sensitive to a variable the model is, the more important is to collect related information. Having reliable data on key variables is a crucial requisite to reduce uncertainty.

 Secondly, the uncertainty associated to BBNs is estimated using the Shannon entropy *H*(*X*) referring to the output variable ('breaking vulnerability' for the vulnerability assessment model). It is defined as the average amount of information conveyed by a stochastic source of data. The concept of Shannon Entropy is fundamental in information theory and, besides sharing some intuition with Boltzmann's theory, some aspects are analogous to those used in statistical thermodynamics. The Shannon entropy can be used as a synthetic measure of uncertainty, related to the number of alternatives and characteristics of the probability distribution over the states of a random variable (Das 1999). It is expressed as follows, using a logarithmic form:Secondly, the uncertainty associated 1 to model predictions is estimated using the Shannon entropy *H*(*X*). It can be used as a synthetic 2 measure of uncertainty, related to the number of alternatives and characteristics of the probability 3 distribution over the states of a variable (Das 1999). It is expressed as follows:

4 
$$
H(X) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i) log P(x_i)
$$
 (1)

 $\overline{5}$   $H(X)$  measures the average information required in addition to the current knowledge to remove the 6 ignorance associated to the probability distribution of the variable X. Higher values of  $H(X)$  are thus 7 associated to more uncertain decisions. If the current state of knowledge is complete, then  $H(X) = 0$ . 8 If it is total ignorance (uniform probability distribution), the additional information required to pin 9 down an alternative is maximum. A normalized value of entropy can be calculated as  $\overline{H}(X) =$ 10  $H(X)/H(X)_{max}$ . For the purposes of the present work, the Shannon entropy is used to estimate the 11 uncertainty related to the main output variables (i.e. 'breaking vulnerability' and 'impacts'). The main 12 advantages related to the use of the Shannon entropy instead of other metrics, are the significance of 13 information in case of skewed distributions and the absence of any influence of user-defined 14 thresholds.

#### 15 **3.3 Impact assessment**

 The levels and types of adverse impacts are the result of a physical event interacting with vulnerable elements. The aim of emergency managers is directly related to the reduction of impacts, both before and after a disaster occurs (McCormick 2016). Correctly assessing the impacts of an emergency is not a straightforward task, due to the complexity associated to a comprehensive analysis of costs and consequences (Sobradelo et al. 2015).

21 For the purpose of the present work, the impact assessment is performed through another BBN, 22 shown in (Figure 43). ), based on the following The basic idea is to estimate the impacts of a potential 23 disruption of the infrastructure identifying the key driversvariables, namelydescribed in the 24 following:

![](_page_51_Picture_186.jpeg)

Diameter Defines the impacts of damages in terms The values 'High', 'Medium' and 'Low' are defined for of costs for repair, proportional to the each element considering whether the ratio between the diameter.

![](_page_52_Picture_181.jpeg)

1

#### 2 **4. L'Aquila case study: relevance and main issues**

3 L'Aquila province (central Italy) was struck by a severe earthquake on 6 April 2009. Apart from a 4 huge number of casualties, sSeveral damages to structures and infrastructures were detected over a 5 broad area (Kongar et al. 2017). Referring specifically to the water supply system, the major damage 6 occurred on an important steel pipe (diameter 600 mm; pressure 25–30 atm), which failed because 7 crossing the surface trace of a fault activated during the earthquake (Dolce and Di Bucci 2017, Pagano 8 et al. 2017).

9 Emergency managers decided to stop tThe operation of the whole system was stopped, in order to 10 allow the restoration of infrastructural functionality and to limit the impacts of the multiplicity 11 of multiple damages occurred in the urban distribution system. Nevertheless, this decision had a strong 12 impact on the local community, whose access to such a crucial service was limited for some days.

 According to the interviews held with technicians involved in emergency operations, the fragmented and uncertain knowledge related to infrastructural conditions, particularly in the urban area, was a 15 key limit in during emergency operations in the aftermath of the disaster. Infrastructural data were not readily available, since most of information were unstructured and not accessible by operators. The available data were often not reliable and directly usable, since mainly deriving from personal experience, and thus difficult to share, visualize and integrate. Most of emergency operators acknowledged the lack of reliable infrastructural information as a main issue hampering the effectiveness of emergency management strategies.

 Based on the lessons learned in L'Aquila earthquake, the main potentialities of the proposed 2 integrated DSS to support decision-making on drinking water supply system in case of disasters are investigated and described in the following.

#### **5. Results and discussion**

#### **5.1 Vulnerability assessment**

 The main results of the vulnerability assessment procedure, performed through *G-Net* in L'Aquila case study, are represented in Figure 5(a) along with the results of the uncertainty assessment. These results are identified in the following as the following as 'BASE' scenario. The map plots the probability values associated to the state 'high' of the variable 'breaking vulnerability'.

 The following Figure 5(a) shows the presence of several elements having values of 'breaking vulnerability' from 'medium' to 'high'. Model predictions were tested comparing the results with the 12 position of the main pipe breaks occurred during the earthquake. Particularly, t<del>Particularly, T</del> the highest values of 'breaking vulnerability' were found for the pipe damaged in 2009. Then, other elements characterized by a significantly high 'breaking vulnerability' were identified as well, and 15 the result discussed with GSA S.p.A., resulting in a with a positive outcome related to the identification ofcorrespondence with some well-known vulnerabilities of the infrastructure.

#### $17 \text{ }$

Figure 5. Results of the vulnerability assessment model performed through *G-Net*

 Globally, the implementation of the model supports building a comprehensive knowledge framework 20 on the conditions of the infrastructure, thus identifying its main criticalities. Although the model is 21 primarily meant to support emergency management activities, it can be used for ordinary operation 22 as well (e.g. to prioritize and schedule maintenance).

#### **5.2 Uncertainty analysis and mapping**

2 Starting from the results of the sensitivity analysis SA proposed in the (Section 3.2), an influence analysis was performed. It allows evaluating (and comparing) the effects on PPD from selected input variables set to specific scenario values (generally best or worst cases). Conducting influence runs can help reveal the degree to which individual or sets of input variables could affect output probabilities. This is helpful in a decision- setting, where management might prioritize activities to best effect desirable, or to avoid undesirable outcomes (Marcot 2012).

8 The following scenarios were analyzed and are discussed in the following:

- 9 BEST Scenario: the scenario is built setting all the variables to their optimal state  $-$  i.e. minimizing the vulnerability of the system.
- 11 WORST Scenario: the scenario is built setting all the variables to their worst state i.e. maximizing the vulnerability of the system.
- 13 UNCERTAIN Scenario: the scenario is built setting all the variables to an 'unknown' state 14 i.e. the input variables have all an uniform probability distribution, in case no information is available.
- Three additional scenarios were built as well, changing the state of some variables according to the results of the SA. The variables modified in each scenario are identified in the Table 1.
- 18 SENSIT (1). The scenario is built setting three key environmental variables to the worst state: 'seismicity', 'existing instabilities' and 'dynamic loads', which are among the most influential variables on 'breaking vulnerability'. All the variables considered in this scenario represent external conditions, and thus their state cannot be improved.
- 22 SENSIT (2). The scenario is built considering the positive impact of actions performed on variables that can be modified through specific strategies. These variables may be

1 representative of both structural and operational aspects. In this scenario, a subset of variables 2 is set to the best state.

3 SENSIT (3). The scenario is built considering the four most influential variables, according 4 to the sensitivity analysis, all contextually set to the worst state.

5 The results are summarized (according to Marcot  $et$  al. 2012), in terms of PPD of the output variable 'breaking vulnerability' (Figure 64). The 'BEST', 'WORST' and 'UNCERTAIN' scenarios show an intuitive PPD for the output variable. The comparison between the scenarios 'SENSIT (3)' and 'SENSIT (1)' suggest that few variables, mainly related to environmental conditions, are highly influential on the result. From a practical point of view, this means that a deep knowledge of the environment in which a system is located (e.g. seismicity of the area, existing instabilities) is crucial for providing athe reliable estimate of 'breaking vulnerability'. Nevertheless, these variables cannot be modified or significantly conditioned. The Scenario 'SENSIT (2)' is indeed relevant in order to 13 assess the impact of potential improvements on infrastructural and operational features, which can be 14 modified. Although the effect on the output PPD is lower, acting on the infrastructure (both through 15 design and maintenance) and changing operative conditions may contribute to reduce significantly the vulnerability level of the system.

#### 17 FIG 64

18 Figure 64. Results of the influence analysis in the modeled scenarios

19 The Shannon entropy was then used to produce uncertainty maps, as shown in Fig. 5. It was firstly 20 used in Referring to the 'BASE' scenario, focusing on the main output variable, i.e. the 'breaking 21 vulnerability', as a simple measure of the uncertainty related to model results. The values of  $H(X)$ 22 were computed for the whole network and spatially plotted along with the results of the vulnerability 23 assessment (Fig. 5a)<del>, in order to describe the spatial variation of uncertainty</del>. The same procedure was 24 This coupling (Figure 7) supports the identification of the most critical elements of the system (e.g.

![](_page_56_Picture_177.jpeg)

1 The Shannon entropy  $H(X)$  was used , in the cited scenarios, to quantify the cumulative uncertainty 2 related to unknown inputs. Following the 'chain rule' for entropy, the global entropy of a group of 3 random variables was computed as the sum of conditional entropies. The values of  $H(X)$  Shannon 4 entropy are 0, 0.067, 0.012 and 0.083 respectively for BASE, U(1), U(2) and U(3) scenarios. This A 5 summary of the results is proposed in the following Table 3:

6 Table 3. Results of the Shannon entropy for the cited scenarios

Sconario <del>stenano</del>	<b>Shannon entropy (input variables)</b>
<b>BASE</b>	A
<del>U (1)</del>	0.067
11(2)	0.012

7 The outcomes of this uncertainty analysfirstly This -suggests that although the scenario U- $(2)$  is 8 characterized by a higher number of unknown variables, their impact on modeling results is lower if 9 compared to the key variables neglected in both  $U-(1)$  and  $U-(3)$  scenarios. Both  $U-(1)$  and  $U-(3)$ 10 scenarios suggest that the knowledge related to environmental conditions is a key requirement to 11 perform a reliable vulnerability assessment. Furthermore, referring particularly to the scenario U-(3), 12 the highest value of *the Shannon entropy* $H(X)$  is representative of a more critical condition, due to 13 the highly uncertain set of available input data.

#### 14 **5.3 Impact assessment**

15 The results of the impact assessment can be geographically represented, as in the following Figure 16 85b, which is based on the probability associated to the state 'High' high' of the variable 17 'Impacts' impacts'. Both a numerical and a chromatic scale are used. It is worth to remind that the 18 impacts associated to the pipes actually occur downstream, in the urban areaAs already discussed, the 19 map represents also the associated uncertainty.

 Figure 85.. Results of impact assessment. Higher values of the state 'high' of the variable 'impacts' are those associated to elements of the infrastructure whose damage could cause the most significant consequences downstreama) Results of vulnerability assessment and related uncertainty; b) Results of impacts assessment and related uncertainty.

#### 5 **5.4 Recommendations for decision-makingmakers**

6 Integrating the results already described, the aim of the The present section is toaims at supporting 7 the decision-makers in prioritizing the interventions on a drinking water supply infrastructure, aiding 8 in the definition of strategies in emergency management operations and to reduce the main 9 criticalities. The specific values of infrastructural vulnerability, the magnitude of the expected 10 impacts associated to a potential failure, and the role of data and information uncertainty related to 11 modelling results are jointly taken into account.

12 In order to address the problem of ranking among the network elementsMore specifically, Tthe 13 network elements alternatives to beare compared represent conditions where considering a different 14 combinations of 'vulnerability under uncertainty' and 'potential-impacts under uncertainty' are found, 15 e.g. highly vulnerable elements of the network, having potentially high associated impacts are by far 16 more relevant for a decision-maker than elements with low vulnerability and low impacts. 17 Nevertheless, intermediate situations need a more careful assessment, also considering that results 18 uncertainty is a key parameter to be taken into account.

19 Considering the drinking water supply infrastructure under analysis, we denote  $X = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$  the 20 set network elements ( $n = 254$ ). Each -, each network element  $(n = 254)$  is characterized by the set 21 of attributes  $A = {\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_{11}, \alpha_{21}}$ , such that  $A_r =$ 22  $\{v_h, v_m, v_l, e_h, e_m, e_l, u_{1h}, u_{1m}, u_{1l}, u_{2h}, u_{2m}, u_{2l}\}\)$  represents the set of all possible values that the 23 elements of  $A$  can take, over which a decision-maker has preferences. Specifically, T-the attributes 24 are:

![](_page_59_Picture_469.jpeg)

**8**  $\qquad \frac{\text{and } a_{2u} = \{ high (u_{2h}), medium (u_{2m}), low (u_{2l}) \}}{2}$ 

9 Throughout this section, the symbol ≻ denotes a decision maker's preference relation,  $x > y$  means 10 that  $x$  is preferred to  $y$ -for one or more criteria considered all together. The decision-makers 11 have the following order of preferences: -a higher value of vulnerability-/exposure has priority 12 compared to a lower one:  $\{\nu_h > \nu_m > \nu_l\}$  and a higher value of exposure has priority compared to a 13 lower value  $(e_h > e_m > e_l)$ . The ranking preferences elicitation was performed through Ssemi-14 structured interviews were held with Civil Protection operators and with engineers working for the 15 local water utility. They were asked, according to their experience in emergency management 16 operations, to support in the ranking among the attributes. CConsidering the combination between 17 the two attributes,  $a_+$  and  $a_+$  the decision-makers should prioritize the highest possible value of  $a_1$ 18 combined with the highest possible value of  $\alpha_2$ :  $v_h e_h > v_h e_m > v_h e_l > v_h e_h > v_l e_h > v_l e_h > v_l e_h$  $v_m e_l > v_l e_m > v_l e_l$ . However, as discussed in section 5.2, the 'uncertainty'  $\alpha_{\text{tot}}$  is a key attribute 20 that decision-makers take into account. No matter the Considering the preferences on the other 21 conditions attributes, a lower value of the 'uncertainty' associated respectively to vulnerability and 22 impact assessment variable is preferred to a higher value:  $-u_{11}u_{21} > u_{11}u_{22} > u_{11}u_{21} > u_{11}u_{22} > u_{12}u_{22}$ 23  $u_{1m}u_{2m} > u_{1h}u_{2l} > u_{1m}u_{2h} > u_{1h}u_{2m} > u_{1h}u_{2h}$ . and  $u_t > u_m > u_h$ .

24 instanceThe possible values of the 'vulnerability under uncertainty' is represented through the 25 following set:

1 . Accordingly, to the preference statements, Considering the combination between  $a_{11}$  and  $a_2$  we 2 obtain the following compact preferences representation, supporting the definition of a ranking order 3 among the different potential 81 conditions, we get:

4 
$$
v_{h}e_{h}u_{1l}u_{2l} \geq v_{h}e_{h}u_{1l}u_{2m} \geq v_{h}e_{h}u_{1m}u_{2l} \geq v_{h}e_{h}u_{1l}u_{2h} \geq v_{h}e_{h}u_{1m}u_{2m} \geq v_{h}e_{h}u_{1h}u_{2l} \geq v_{h}e_{h}u_{1h}u_{2l}
$$

$$
5 \qquad \qquad > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1m}u_{2h} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1h}u_{2m} > v_{h}e_{h}u_{1h}u_{2h} > v_{h}e_{m}u_{1l}u_{2l} > v_{h}e_{m}u_{1l}u_{2m} > \cdots >
$$

6 
$$
\qquad \qquad \succ \cdots \succ v_{l}e_{l}u_{1h}u_{2h} = r v_{1} \succ r v_{2} \succ r v_{3} \succ v_{4} \succ v_{5} \succ v_{6} \succ v_{7} \succ v_{8} ... \succ r v_{981}
$$

7

8  $v_{h}u_{t} \geq v_{h}u_{m} \geq v_{h}u_{h} \geq v_{m}u_{m} \geq v_{t}u_{t} \geq v_{t}u_{h} \geq v_{t}u_{m} \geq v_{t}u_{h}$  Considering the 9 combination between  $a_{\frac{1}{2}}$  and  $a_{\frac{1}{2}}$  we obtain the following preferences representation, supporting the 10 definition of a ranking order among the different potential conditions.

11 Consequentially, considering thein relation to the water supply network under analysis, we obtain the 12 spatial representation of ranking as in the following Figure. 96. The mapping of results allows 13 decision-makers to identify the elements of a complex the network where interventions should be 14 primarily oriented either in emergency conditions or in ordinary management, to reduce the risk levels 15 for the whole system. With respect to the results of the vulnerability assessment, proposed in Figure 16 5 according to the methodology by Pagano et al. (2014a, 2014b), the present approach provides an 17 added value for decision-making processes, since the final ranking takes into account the uncertainty 18 of modeling results, and the magnitude of impacts.

#### 19 FIG 96

- 20 Figure 96. Ranking of the network elements of the network. Priority decreases from elements 21 belonging to  $r_2$  to those belonging to  $r_{20}$ .
- 22 **6. Conclusions**

1 This work describes the development of a Decision Support ToolDSS for decision-makers-making 2 involved in the emergency management of drinking water supply systems, in case of extreme events. The Modelling methodology activities were carried out in tight cooperation with both the Italian 4 Department of Civil Protection and the tool was implemented in L'Aquila earthquake case study. The 5 model is composed of: i) a BBN-based vulnerability assessment tool for drinking water supply 6 infrastructures, with the related  $\frac{1}{2}$  ii) an uncertainty analysis tool; iii) and a BBN-based model to estimate impacts magnitude, in terms of both economic consequences and service limitationwith the related uncertainty analysis. The tools are integrated in a comprehensive methodology, based on preferences orders, capable to jointly take into account all the previous information, and to define a ranking order among the elements of the infrastructural system. This ranking simply suggests a priority of action for decision-makers. Overcoming one of the main limitations of BBNs -i.e. the difficulties in performing spatial analyses- the development of a GIS interface (*G-Net*), used for data structuring and results analysis, revealed highly useful to improve the effectiveness of the tool, 14 helping in visualizing the outcomes, understanding the related quantifying uncertainty, and identifying the final ranking. Future activities will be oriented mainly to the analysis of temporal aspects related to the dynamic evolution of system behavior (see e.g. Pagano et al. 2017) and to the implementation of models based on complexity theory to support the analysis of interconnected systems.

### **Acknowledgments**

 The present research activity was developed within a research project funded by the Italian Department of Civil Protection ('Intesa Operativa del 19.12.2006 tra DPC e IRSA—Rep. 618).

#### **References**

![](_page_62_Picture_162.jpeg)

- Earthquake in Bam-Iran. Water Resour Manage 24:2567-2596. doi:10.1007/s11269-009-9568-1
- Beh EHY, Zheng F, Dandy GC, Maier HR, Kapelan Z (2017) Robust optimization of water infrastructure planning under deep uncertainty using metamodels, Environ Model Softw 93:92-105.
- doi:10.1016/j.envsoft.2017.03.013.
- Bertone E, Sahin O, Richards R, Roiko A (2016) Extreme events, water quality and health: A

8 participatory Bayesian risk assessment tool for managers of reservoirs. J Clean Prod 135:657-667. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.06.158

- Das B (1999) Representing Uncertainties Using Bayesian Networks. DSTO-TR-0918, DSTO Electronics and Surveillance Research Laboratory, Australia
- Diao K, Sweetapple C, Farmani R, Fu G, Ward S, Butler D (2016) Global resilience analysis of water distribution systems. Water Res 106:383-393. doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2016.10.011
- 14 Dolce M, Di Bucci D (2017) Comparing recent Italian earthquakes. Bull Earthq Eng 15(2): 497-533. doi:10.1007/s10518-015-9773-7
- Eidsvig UMK, Kristensen K, Vangelsten BV (2017) Assessing the risk posed by natural hazards to
- infrastructures. Nat Hazards Earth Syst Sci 17:481-504. doi:10.5194/nhess-17-481-2017.
- EPA (2015) Systems Measures of Water Distribution System Resilience. EPA 600/R-14/383.
- Fragiadakis M, Christodoulou SE, Vamvatsikos D (2013) Reliability Assessment of Urban Water Distribution Networks Under Seismic Loads. Water Resour Manage 27: 3739-3764.
- doi:10.1007/s11269-013-0378-0
- Francis RA, Guikema SD, Henneman L. (2014) Bayesian Belief Networks for predicting drinking water distribution system pipe breaks. Reliab Eng Syst Saf 130:1–11. doi: 10.1016/j.ress.2014.04.024.
- Gaudard L, Romerio F (2015) Natural hazard risk in the case of an emergency: the real options' approach. Nat Hazards 75(1): 473–488. doi:10.1007/s11069-014-1330-1
- Giordano R, D'Agostino D, Apollonio C, Scardigno A, Pagano A, Portoghese I, Lamaddalena N,

Piccinni AF, Vurro M (2015) Evaluating acceptability of groundwater protection measures under

different agricultural policies. Agr Water Manag 147:54-66. doi: 10.1016/j.agwat.2014.07.023.

Gonzalez-Redin J, Luque S, Poggio L, Smith R, Gimona A (2016) Spatial Bayesian belief networks

as a planning decision tool for mapping ecosystem services trade-offs on forested landscapes. Environ

- Res 144:15–26. doi: 10.1016/j.envres.2015.11.009.
- Hsu WK, Tseng CP, Chiang WL, Chen CW (2012) Risk and uncertainty analysis in the planning stages of a risk decision-making process. Nat Hazards 61(3):1355-1365. doi:10.1007/s11069-011- 0032-1
- Jessen F.(1996) An Introduction of Bayesian Network, Springer-Verlag.
- John A, Yang Z, Riahi R, Wang J (2016) A risk assessment approach to improve the resilience of a seaport system using Bayesian networks. Ocean Eng 111:136–147. doi: 10.1016/j.oceaneng.2015.10.048.
- Johnson S, Low-Choy S, Mengersen K (2011) Integrating Bayesian Networks and Geographic Information Systems: Good Practice Examples. Integr Environ Assess Manag 8(3): 473–479. doi: 10.1002/ieam.262

![](_page_64_Picture_143.jpeg)

 Kabir G, Sadiq R, Tesfamariam S (2016) A fuzzy Bayesian belief network for safety assessment of oil and gas pipelines. Struct Infrastruct Eng 12(8):874–889. doi:10.1080/15732479.2015.1053093

 Karimi HA, Houston BH (1996) Evaluating strategies for integrating environmental models with GIS: current trends and future needs. Comput Environ Urban Syst 20(6):413-425. doi: 10.1016/S0198-9715(97)00006-9

 Kongar I, Esposito S, Giovinazzi S (2017) Post-earthquake assessment and management for infrastructure systems: learning from the Canterbury (New Zealand) and L'Aquila (Italy) earthquakes. Bull Earthq Eng 15(2): 589-620. doi: 10.1007/s10518-015-9761-y

 Landuyt D, Broekx S, D'hondt R, Engelen G, Aertsens J, Goethals P (2013) A review of Bayesian belief networks in ecosystem service modelling. Environ Model Softw 46:1–11. doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2013.03.011

 Landuyt D, Van der Biest K Broekx S, Staes J Meire P, Goethals PLM (2015) A GIS plug-in for Bayesian belief networks: Towards a transparent software framework to assess and visualise uncertainties in ecosystem service mapping. Environ Model Softw 71:30-38. doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2015.05.002.

- Leu SS, Bui QN (2016). Leak Prediction Model for Water Distribution Networks Created Using a Bayesian Network Learning Approach. Water Resour Manage 30:2719-2733. doi:10.1007/s11269- 016-1316-8
- Liu R, Chen Y, Wu J, Gao L, Barrett D, Xu T, Li L, Huang C, Yu J (2016) Assessing spatial likelihood of flooding hazard using naive Bayes and GIS: a case study in Bowen Basin, Australia. Stoch Environ Res Risk Assess 30(6):1575-1590. doi: 10.1007/s00477-015-1198-y

![](_page_65_Picture_156.jpeg)

Malm A, Moberg F, Rosén L., Petterson TJR (2015) Cost-Benefit Analysis and Uncertainty Analysis

of Water Loss Reduction Measures: Case Study of the Gothenburg Drinking Water Distribution

System. Water Resour Manage 29(15): 5451-5468. doi:10.1007/s11269-015-1128-2

Marcot BG (2012) Metrics for evaluating performance and uncertainty of Bayesian network models.

Ecol Model 230:50– 62. doi: 10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2012.01.013

 McCormick S (2016) New tools for emergency managers: an assessment of obstacles to use and implementation. Disasters 40(2): 207−225. doi: 10.1111/disa.12141.

Mohajerani H, Kholghi M, Mosaedi A, Farmani R, Sadoddin A, Casper M (2017) Application of

12 Bayesian Decision Networks for Groundwater Resources Management Under the Conditions of High

Uncertainty and Data Scarcity. Water Resour Manage 31(6):1859-1879. doi:10.1007/s11269-017-

1616-7

Mokhtar EHA, Laggoune R, Chateauneuf A. (2016) Utility-Based Maintenance Optimization for

Complex Water-Distribution Systems Using Bayesian Networks. Water Resour Manage 30:4153-

4170. doi:10.1007/s11269-016-1412-9

 Molina JL, Farmani R, Bromley J (2011) Aquifers management through evolutionary bayesian networks:the Altiplano case study (SE Spain). Water Resour Manag 25(14):3883–3909. doi:10.1007/s11269-011-9893-z

Molina JL, Zazo S, Rodríguez-Gonzálvez P, González-Aguilera D (2016) Innovative Analysis of

Runoff Temporal Behavior through Bayesian Networks. Water 8(11), 484. doi:10.3390/w8110484

 Pagano A, Giordano R, Portoghese I, Fratino U, Vurro M (2014a) A Bayesian vulnerability assessment tool for drinking water mains under extreme events. Nat Hazards 74(3):2193–2227. doi: 10.1007/s11069-014-1302-5

 Pagano A, Giordano R, Portoghese I, Vurro M, Fratino U (2014b) Emergency Management of Drinking Water Infrastructures Based on a Bayesian Decision Support System. Vulnerability, Uncertainty, and Risk: Quantification, Mitigation, and Management - Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Vulnerability and Risk Analysis and Management, ICVRAM 2014 and the 6th International Symposium on Uncertainty Modeling and Analysis, ISUMA 2014, pp. 2012- 2021.

Pagano A, Pluchinotta I, Giordano R, Vurro M (2017) Drinking water supply in resilient cities: notes

from L'Aquila earthquake case study. Sustain Cities Soc 28:435-449. doi: 10.1016/j.scs.2016.09.005.

Pearl J (1988) Probabilistic Reasoning in Intelligent Systems, Morgan Kaufmann, San Francisco

 Perng SY, Buscher M (2015) Uncertainty and Transparency: Augmenting Modelling and Prediction for Crisis Response, Proceedings of the ISCRAM 2015 Conference, Kristiansand, May 24-27, Palen, Büscher, Comes & Hughes eds.

 Phan TD, Smart JCR, Capon SJ, Hadwen WL, Sahin O (2016) Applications of Bayesian belief networks in water resource management: A systematic review. Environ Model Softw 85:98-111. doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2016.08.006

 Refsgaard JC, van der Sluijs JP, Højberg AL, Vanrolleghem PA (2007) Uncertainty in the environmental modelling processe. A framework and guidance. Environ Model Softw 22:1543-1556. Shabarchin O, Tesfamariam S (2016) Internal corrosion hazard assessment of oil &gas pipelines using Bayesian belief network model. J Loss Prev Process Ind 40:479-495. doi: 10.1016/j.jlp.2016.02.001

 Sobradelo R, Martı J, Kilburn C, Lopez C (2015) Probabilistic approach to decision-making under uncertainty during volcanic crises: retrospective application to the El Hierro (Spain) 2011 volcanic crisis. Nat Hazards 76:979–998. doi: 10.1007/s11069-014-1530-8

Sword-Daniels V, Eriksen C, Hudson-Doyle EE, Alaniz R, Adler C, Schenk T, Vallance S (2016)

 Embodied uncertainty: living with complexity and natural hazards. J Risk Res. doi: 10.1080/13669877.2016.1200659

- Tanyimboh TT (2017) Informational Entropy: a Failure Tolerance and Reliability Surrogate for Water Distribution Networks. Water Resour Manage 31:3189-3204. doi:10.1007/s11269-017-1684- 8
- Tateosian L (2015) Python For ArcGIS. Springer. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-18398-5

Uusitalo L (2007) Advantages and challenges of Bayesian networks in environmental modeling. Ecol

Model 203(3–4):312–318. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2006.11.033

- Uusitalo L, Lehikoinen A, Helle I, Myrberg K (2015) An overview of methods to evaluate uncertainty of deterministic models in decision support. Environ Model Softw 63:24-31. doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2014.09.017
- van der Keur P, van Bers C, Henriksen HJ, Nibanupudi HK, Yadav S, Wijaya R, Subiyono A,
- Mukerjee N, Hausmann HJ, Hare M, van Scheltinga CT, Pearn G, Jaspers F (2016) Identification and
- analysis of uncertainty in disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation in South and Southeast
- Asia, Int J Disaster Risk Reduct 16: 208–214. doi:10.1016/j.ijdrr.2016.03.002
- 20 Wang J, Gu X, Huang T (2013) Using Bayesian networks in analyzing powerful earthquake disaster chains. Nat Hazards, 68(2):509-527. doi:10.1007/s11069-013-0631-0
- Wu J, Zhou R, Xu S, Wu Z (2017) Probabilistic analysis of natural gas pipeline network accident based on Bayesian network, Journal of Loss Prevention in the Process Industries, 46:126-136. doi:10.1016/j.jlp.2017.01.025.
- Zhang L, Wu X, Qin Y, Skibniewski MJ, Liu W (2016). Risk Anal 36(2):278-301, doi: 10.1111/risa.12448
- Zhao X, Cai H, Chen Z, Gong H, Feng Q (2016) Assessing urban lifeline systems immediately after seismic disaster based on emergency resilience. Struct Infrastruct Eng 12(12):1634-1649. doi: 10.1080/15732479.2016.1157609